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Size versus fairness in the assignment problem

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Abstract

When not all objects are acceptable to all agents, maximizing the number of objects actually assigned is an important design concern. We compute the guaranteed size ratio of the Probabilistic Serial mechanism, i.e., the worst ratio of the actual expected size to the maximal feasible size. It converges decreasingly to $1-\frac{1}{e}\simeq 63.2\%$ as the maximal size increases. It is the best ratio of any Envy-Free assignment mechanism.

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1 The problem and the punchline

Lotteries are commonly used to allocate indivisible resources (objects), especially so when monetary transfers are ruled out. Examples include the assignment of jobs to time-slots, of workers to tasks or offices, the allocation of seats in overdemanded public schools ([2], [21]), of students to dormitory rooms or courses, etc. An excellent survey is [26]. Using cash transfers and prices in such problems skews the distribution toward the wealthier agents, which is arguably inefficient ([11]); they are also ruled out by moral objections to commoditizing certain objects like human organs ([25]). Randomization is then a practical way to restore fairness at the ex ante stage.

A great deal of recent economic research applies the methodology of mechanism design to the random allocation of objects. The earliest results (briefly reviewed below) bear on the benchmark *random assignment* problem where each agent wants at most one object, reports an *ordinal* preference ranking of those

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objects, and receives a random object, or no object. The compelling test of ex ante fairness is the *No Envy* property: when Ann compares the probability distribution of the object she will receive to the distribution of the object Bob will receive, she finds that the her distribution stochastically dominates Bob's. We focus here on the tension between No Envy and the potential wastefulness of the mechanism when agents have outside options.

Ouside options are pervasive in many practical instances of assignment: in the school choice problem they are offered by private schools; college students can live off campus; jobs have deadlines so a time slot beyond that date is worse than dropping the job at the outset, and so on. An agent will not accept an object worse than his/her outside option, and this affects the size of the realized assignment (number of agents who receive an object). This size is a measure of utilization of the resources, therefore maximizing it is important in its own right: filling the largest possible number of seats/rooms/jobs, is a component of the system performance, to which public shool administrators, the housing office on campus, the job manager, etc., are paying attention.

Note that the largest feasible size of an assignment only depends upon the bipartite graph of acceptability, and ignores the finer information in the profile of individual preferences. So it is not surprising that size maximization often conflicts with fairness and incentive compatibility. This is obvious in the following elementary example with two objects a, b and two agents Ann, Bob, who both prefer a to b. If both objects are acceptable (better than his outside option) to Bob but Ann only accepts a, then assigning a to Ann and b to Bob is the only assignment of maximal size. It is obviously unfair to Bob who envies Ann's allocation. Moreover selecting this assignment also gives Bob the incentive to report that only a is acceptable, if he prefers a 50% chance of getting a to a 100% chance of b.

We give a precise lower bound on the trade-off size versus fairness in the random assignment problem with outside options. We define the $size\ ratio$ of an assignment at a given profile of preferences as the ratio of its size to the maximal feasible size when we must only ensure that everyone gets an acceptable object. The $guaranteed\ m\text{-}size\ ratio$ of a random assignment mechanism is its worst size ratio over all assignment problems such that the maximal size of a feasible assignment is m.

We discuss first the *Probabilistic Serial* mechanism (hereafter PS; see next section and section 5), the only known mechanism to date combining Envy-Freeness with Efficiency (Pareto optimality). We compute exactly the guaranteed m-size ratio of PS: it decreases with m from $\frac{3}{4}$ for m=2 (achieved in the example above) and converges to $1-\frac{1}{e}\simeq 0.632$ as m grows arbitrarily large. Then we show that this is the greatest guaranteed m-size ratio among all envy-free assignment mechanisms.

2 Related literature

- 1) The first random assignment mechanism in [16] is a competitive equilibrium with flat money to buy lotteries, and relies on cardinal (von Neuman Morgenstern) individual utilities over objects. Such individual reports are too complex in practice, so attention turned to the more realistic ordinal mechanisms where a report is simply a ranking of the acceptable objects. The most natural ordinal mechanism is the time honored Random Priority (RP), a.k.a. serial dictatorship, discussed first in [1] who offer a market-like interpretation of RP. Next [8] proposed the alternative *Probabilistic Serial* mechanism that fares better than RP in terms of efficiency and fairness, but has worse incentive properties: PS is Envy-Free but RP is not, while RP is strategyproof but PS is not. Subsequent work considerably refined the comparison of RP and PS; for instance [14] discusses a different wasteful aspect of RP that PS does not share, while [7], and [15] characterize PS axiomatically. Particularly relevant here is the asymptotic equivalence of PS and RP along certain expansion paths of the economy with a fixed, finite number of types of objects, while the number of copies of each object grows at roughly the same rate as the number of agents. First established in [12], this result was recently generalized in [23] to a broad class of random assignment mechanisms. However for any fixed finite number of agents. the expected sizes achieved by PS and RP are not comparable at all preference profiles.
- 2) The goal of maximizing the assignment size appears first in the algorithmic mechanism design literature. An early instance is [24], discussing the tradeoff between Strategy-Proofness and the utilitarian minimization of aggregate cost. Another seminal example, closer to home, is in the bilateral matching problem. When preferences have ties and remaining single is preferred to some potential partners, not all stable matchings are of the same size (the "rural hospital theorem" does not apply), so it is natural to look for a stable matching of maximal size ([17]), or for a maximal cardinality matching with the smallest number of blocking pairs ([5]): both questions turn out to be NP-hard.
- 3) It results from our Theorem and earlier results in [13] that the guaranteed m-size ratio of RP is always bounded above by r_m , the guaranteed ratio of PS. On the other hand, the results in [3] and [22] provide the lower bound $1-(1-\frac{1}{m+1})^m-\frac{1}{m}$, a sequence converging increasingly to $1-\frac{1}{e}$, for the guaranteed m-size ratio of RP. Thus, for problems with a large feasible assignment, RP and PS have approximately the same guaranteed ratio $1-\frac{1}{e}$. The interesting fact is that the proof techniques in [3], [22] are radically different than ours. They are closely related to the problem of designing an online bilateral matching algorithm maximizing the match size relative to the maximal size feasible offline. The Ranking algorithm of [19] selects randomly and uniformly an ordering of the objects, then assigns to the incoming agent the highest acceptable object in that ordering; its m-guaranteed size is no less than $1-(1-\frac{1}{m+1})^m$ (see also [4] for a simpler proof and [18] for a generalization to multiple objects).

These results suggest that, for any m, RP may have the best guaranteed

m-size ratio among all strategy proof mechanisms, despite the fact that it is dominated by some less was teful strategy-proof mechanisms ([14]). In fact Theorem 6.2 in [22] establishes this conjecture for the case $m \leq 3$. Thus our results confirm the intuition that PS and RP are similar for large problems, but no part of our Theorem can be deduced from existing results, even in an asymptotic sense.

3 Random assignment with outside options

Fix N the set of agents and A of objects, with respective cardinalities n and q. A preference R_i of agent $i \in N$ is a possibly empty ordered subset of A, written $R_i = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k)$ where a_1 is the best object for i and a_k her least preferred acceptable object. We write $R_i = \emptyset$ if no object is acceptable to i, and $a \in R_i$ means that a is an acceptable object for i. The set of individual preferences is $\mathcal{R}(A)$.

A profile of preferences $R \in \mathcal{R}(A)$ defines a compatibility bipartite graph $E \subseteq N \times A$: $ia \in E(R) \Leftrightarrow a \in R_i$, describing which objects are acceptable to which agents. An assignment problem is a triple $\Delta = (N, A, R)$, and its compatibility graph is written $E(\Delta)$.

An assignment is a $N \times A$ substochastic matrix $P = [p_{ia}] \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{N \times A}$: $\sum_{N} p_{ia} \leq 1$ for all a and $\sum_{A} p_{ia} \leq 1$ for all i. It is feasible at R if, in addition, $p_{ia} > 0 \Rightarrow ia \in E(\Delta)$. We write $\mathcal{P}(E(\Delta))$, or simply $\mathcal{P}(E)$, for the set of feasible assignments at Δ , and $\mathcal{P}^{d}(E)$ for the subset of deterministic feasible assignments $(p_{ia} = 0, 1 \text{ for all } i, a)$. A well known fact (a variant of Birkhof's Theorem) is that the convex hull of $\mathcal{P}^{d}(E)$ is $\mathcal{P}(E)$.

The expected number of objects (or agents) assigned at P is $s(P) = \sum_{N \times A} p_{ia}$, we call it the **size** of P. Note that $s(P) \leq \min\{n,q\}$. The following nice fact refines Birkhof's Theorem. A random assignment is implemented by deterministic assignments of (almost) equal size: any $P \in \mathcal{P}(E)$ is a convex combination of deterministic assignments of size $\lfloor s(P) \rfloor$ or $\lceil s(P) \rceil$ (lower and upper integral part). In particular the program

$$s^*(E) = \max_{P \in \mathcal{P}(E)} s(P) \tag{1}$$

has at least one deterministic solution, and every solution is a convex combination of such deterministic assignments. We call $s^*(E(\Delta))$ the size of the **problem** Δ , i.e., the maximal number of objects/agents it is feasible to assign. The set of assignment problems of size m is denoted \mathcal{A}^m .

An assignment mechanism F associates to every assignment problem Δ a feasible assignment $F(\Delta) = P \in \mathcal{P}(E(\Delta))$. We focus in this paper on the worst possible size that a mechanism can achieve, relative to the size of the problem. Define, for any $m \geq 1$, the **guaranteed** m-size ratio of the mechanism F as follows

$$\sigma_m(F) = \min_{\Delta \in \mathcal{A}^m} \frac{1}{m} s(F(\Delta)) \tag{2}$$

¹This follows from the results in [10].

4 Efficiency and guaranteed size

Given a problem Δ and two deterministic assignments $P, P' \in \mathcal{P}^d(E(\Delta))$, we say that P' Pareto dominates P if $P \neq P'$ and for all a, b

$$\{p'_{ia} = 1 \text{ and } p_{ib} = 1\} \Rightarrow aR_ib$$

 $\{p'_{ia} = 0 \text{ for all } a\} \Rightarrow \{p_{ia} = 0 \text{ for all } a\}$

An efficient (Pareto optimal) deterministic assignment is one that is not Pareto dominated.

In any problem $\Delta \in \mathcal{A}^m$ there is at least one efficient deterministic assignment of size m (i.e., the maximum possible size). This follows because if an assignment $P \in \mathcal{P}^d(E)$ is Pareto dominated by P', then $s(P) \leq s(P')$. On the other hand it is easy to construct problems with efficient deterministic assignments of size $\frac{m}{2}$. The example in subsection 1.2 is the simplest one:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
\text{Ann} & \text{Bob} \\
a & a \\
\varnothing & b
\end{array}$$

Here m=2 yet $\{a \to \text{Bob}, \varnothing \to \text{Ann}\}$ is an efficient assignment. If m is even (resp. odd), we can replicate this two-agent×two-object pattern to get a problem in \mathcal{A}^m with an efficient assignment of size $\frac{m}{2}$ (resp. $\frac{m+1}{2}$).

A useful and well known observation is that in any problem of size m, any efficient deterministic assignment is of size at least $\frac{m}{2}$. Therefore any efficient deterministic mechanism has a guaranteed m-size ratio of at least $\frac{1}{2}$ (for any m).

For a general (random) assignment mechanism F, the weakest efficiency requirement is **Ex Post Efficiency** (EPE), requiring that the assignment P be a convex combination of efficient deterministic assignments. Thus any ex post efficient assignment mechanism has a guaranteed m-size ratio of at least $\frac{1}{2}$ as well. This good news is mitigated by the fact that other normative requirements of fairness and incentive compatibility place an upper bound on the guaranteed size ratio of the match.

5 Three axioms and two mechanisms

Given a problem Δ , agent i compares two feasible assignments $P, P' \in \mathcal{P}(E(\Delta))$ by means of her own allocations $p(i) = (p_{ia})_{a \in A}$ and p'(i), the i-th rows of P and P' respectively. We define a critical incomplete preference relation for agent i with preferences $R_i = (a_1, \dots, a_k), 1 \leq k \leq q$. We say that p(i) is **sd-preferred**

²If $P \in \mathcal{P}^d(E)$ is efficient and of size m', and both agent i and object a are not matched at P, then $ia \notin E$, otherwise assigning a to i would be a Pareto improvement of P. It follows that any edge used by a matching feasible at E has at least one endnode matched in P, and there are 2m' such nodes.

to p'(i) (where sd stands for stochastic dominance) if

$$\sum_{1}^{t} p_{ia_t} \ge \sum_{1}^{t} p'_{ia_t} \text{ for all } t, 1 \le t \le k$$

and we write $p(i) \stackrel{sd_i}{\succeq} p'(i)$ (this relation is empty if $R_i = \emptyset$). Note that sd-indifference is just equality. We say that p(i) is **strictly sd-preferred** to p'(i) if $p(i) \stackrel{sd_i}{\succeq} p'(i)$ and $p'(i) \neq p(i)$, so that at least one of the inequalities above is strict; then we write $p(i) \stackrel{sd_i}{\succ} p'(i)$.

We can now define the three normative properties leading the discussion of random assignment mechanisms. The feasible assignment $P \in \mathcal{P}(E(\Delta))$ is

Ordinally Efficient (OE) if for all
$$P' \in \mathcal{P}(E(\Delta))$$
, $\{p'(i) \overset{sd_i}{\succeq} p(i) \text{ for all } i \in N\} \Longrightarrow P' = P$

For a deterministic assignment, OE and EPE are the same thing, but for general random assignments OE is a strictly stronger requirement than EPE.

Envy-Free (EF) if
$$p(i) \stackrel{sd_i}{\succeq} p(j)$$
 for all $i, j \in N$

If a deterministic mechanism is Envy-Free, its guaranteed *m*-size ratio is zero, as it must throw away all objects when agents have identical preferences. Thus only randomized envy-free mechanisms can have a positive guaranteed ratio.

The assignment mechanism F is

Strategy-proof (SP) if for all Δ , all $i \in N$, and all $R'_i \in \mathcal{R}(A)$ we have $p(i) \stackrel{sd_i}{\succeq} p'(i)$, where F(N, A, R) = P and $F(N, A, (R'_i, R_{-i})) = P'$

The simplest definition of the **Probabilistic Serial** (PS) mechanism PS is recursive.³ Think of object a as one unit of (probabilistic) commodity a, and consider the algorithm where each agent i fills his allocation by "eating" at constant speed 1, from time t=0 until at most time t=1, from her best acceptable object still available. At time 0, one unit of each object is available; at time 1 each agent has eaten a substochastic allocation p(i), and each object not fully consumed is unacceptable to each agent i such that $\sum_A p_{ia} < 1$.⁴

The PS mechanism is Ordinally Efficient, Envy-Free, but not Strategy-Proof. It is the only example to date of a random mechanism with these two properties.

The simplest strategyproof mechanism is the deterministic π -priority mechanism, where π is an arbitrary ordering $\pi = \{i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n\}$ of the agents in N:

³See [6] for another, more compact, though somewhat less transparent definition.

⁴Here is an example with five agents and four objects. Assume a is the best object for agents 1,2,3, b is best for 4,5, and c,d for nobody. Then a is fully eaten at time $t=\frac{1}{3}$, and 1,2,3 each get a $\frac{1}{3}$ share of it. Suppose agent 1 only accepts a, then she is done; say the next acceptable object is b for agent 2 and c for agent 3. Then starting from $t=\frac{1}{3}$ we have 2,4,5 eating the remaining $\frac{1}{3}$ unit of b, thus b is exhausted at $t'=\frac{1}{3}+\frac{1}{9}$, and is divided in $\frac{4}{9}$ for each of 4 and 5, and $\frac{1}{0}$ for agent 2; and so on.

agent i_1 gets her best acceptable object in R_{i_1} , then agent i_2 gets his best remaining acceptable object in R_{i_2} , if any, and so on. This mechanism is clearly Strategy-Proof and Efficient. The Random Priority (RP) mechanism runs the π -priority mechanism after selecting π randomly and with uniform probability on all orderings of N. It is StrategyProof and Ex Post Efficient, but neither Ordinally Efficient or Envy-Free.

There is in fact no assignment mechanism meeting OE, EF, and SP (Theorem 2 in [8]).

The guaranteed m-size of the π -priority mechanism is $\frac{m}{2}$ if m is even, and $\frac{m+1}{2}$ if it is odd. This is easy to see from footnote 2. Next the two object example in section 1 shows that the guaranteed m-size ratio of any deterministic strategyproof mechanism cannot be more than $\frac{1}{2}$ if m is even, or $\frac{1}{2}(1+\frac{1}{m})$ if it is odd.⁵. Remarkably, our two randomized mechanisms RP and PS perform significantly better.

6 The result

For any two integers k, m such that $1 \le k < m$ we define

$$S(m,k) = \frac{1}{k+1} + \frac{1}{k+2} + \dots + \frac{1}{m}$$

Noticing that S(m,k) decreases in k, we define for any $m \geq 2$ the integer k_m by the inequalities

$$S(m, k_m) \le 1 < S(m, k_m - 1) \tag{3}$$

Finally we set $r_m = 1 - \frac{k_m}{m} S(m, k_m)$. For large k, m we have $S(m, k) \simeq \ln(\frac{m}{k})$ hence for large $m : \ln(\frac{m}{k_m}) \simeq 1 \iff$ $k_m \simeq \frac{1}{e}m$, and finally $r_m \simeq 1 - \frac{1}{e}$. We can say more:

Lemma 1 The sequence r_m is decreasing and converges to $1 - \frac{1}{e} = 0.632$ at the speed $O(\frac{1}{n})$. For instance $r_2 = 0.750$, $r_3 = 0.722$, $r_4 = 0.708$, $r_5 = 0.687$, $r_{10} = 0.662$, $r_{20} = 0.648$. (proof in the Appendix)

Theorem

- i) The guaranteed m-size ratio of PS is $\sigma_m(PS) = r_m$.
- ii) The guaranteed m-size ratio of any Envy-Free mechanism is at most r_m .
- iii) The guaranteed m-size ratio of RP is strictly smaller: $\sigma_m(RP) < r_m$ for $m \geq 4$; while $\sigma_2(RP) = r_2$ and $\sigma_3(RP) = r_3$.

The following diagonal problem Δ_m^* of size m already played a role in three relevant earlier papers: [19], [13], and [9]. There are m agents, $N = \{1, \dots, m\}, m \text{ objects}, A = \{a_1, \dots, a_m\}, \text{ and agent } i$'s preferences are $R_i = (a_m, a_{m-1}, \dots, a_i)$. Note the inverted labeling, easier to read. One interpretation is of a scheduling problem where objects are unit time slots (higher

⁵ At the profile where both Ann and Bob report that only a is acceptable, if a is not assigned, the size ratio is 0; if a is given to agent Bob, say, then by SP Bob still gets a at the initial example.

label means earlier time) and agents are jobs with a processing time of one unit; each job prefers an earlier slot, and job i has a deadline at time i (cannot be processed later than i). For instance Δ_5^* :

We check below $s(PS(\Delta_m^*)) = m \cdot r_m$, implying $\sigma_m(PS) \leq r_m$. The much harder proof that problem Δ_m^* achieves the worst possible m-size ratio $\min_{\Delta \in \mathcal{A}^m} \frac{s(PS(\Delta))}{m}$ in (2) is in the Appendix.

In the PS eating algorithm, object a_m is eaten first by all agents, who each get a share $\frac{1}{m}$; next object a_{m-1} is eaten by agents $1, \dots, m-1$, who each get a share $\frac{1}{m-1}$; if object a_k is fully eaten, each agent $j=1,\dots,k$ gets a total share $\frac{1}{k} + \frac{1}{k+1} + \dots + \frac{1}{m} = S(m,k-1)$ of objects a_m,\dots,a_k . The critical object a_{k_m+1} defined by (3) is eaten in full because $\frac{1}{k_m+1} + \dots + \frac{1}{m} = S(m,k_m) \le 1$, but because agents $k_m, k_m - 1, \dots, 1$, can only eat a full unit, their share of a_{k_m} is only $1 - (\frac{1}{k_m+1} + \frac{1}{k_m+2} + \dots + \frac{1}{m})$ (strictly less than $\frac{1}{k_m}$), and object a_{k_m} is not fully eaten. Objects a_{k_m-1}, \dots, a_1 , are not eaten at all, i.e., they are not assigned to anyone. This yields the following assignment $P = PS(\Delta_m^*)$:

$$\begin{aligned} p_{ia_j} &=& 0 \text{ if } i > j \text{ and/or } j < k_m \\ p_{ia_j} &=& \frac{1}{j} \text{ if } i \leq j \text{ and } j \geq k_m + 1 \\ p_{ia_j} &=& 1 - S(m, k_m) \text{ if } i \leq j \text{ and } j = k_m \end{aligned}$$

$$\Longrightarrow s(PS(\Delta_m^*)) = \sum_{1 \leq i, j \leq m} p_{ia_j} = m - k_m + k_m (1 - S(m, k_m)) = m - k_m S(m, k_m)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{m} s(PS(\Delta_m^*)) = 1 - \frac{k_m}{m} S(m, k_m) = r_m$$

Remark: public indifferences⁶ In many examples such as the allocation of seats in public schools, courses to college students, even offices and tasks to co-workers, we have different types of objects and several copies of each type; all agents are indifferent between two copies of the same type of objects. We speak of public indifferences to distinguish this case from the private indifferences case where Ann can be indifferent between objects a and b while Bob is not. As long as we insist that preferences over types and the outside option are strict, ther extension of RP and PS to allow for public indifferences is straightforward. To any such problem $\Delta^{in} = (N, A, R^{in})$ we can associate a standard problem $\Delta = (N, A, R)$ by breaking ties arbitrarily for each agent, and note that Δ and Δ^{in} have the same size. The resulting matrices $RP(\Delta)$ and $PS(\Delta)$ depend

 $^{^6}$ We thank an anonymous referee for suggesting this extension of our Theorem.

upon our tie-breaking choices, but the probability that a given agent i receives an object of a given type does not, and it is all that matters to define $RP(\Delta^{in})$ and $PS(\Delta^{in})$. In particular the sizes $s(RP(\Delta))$ and $s(PS(\Delta))$ are independent of the tie-breaking rule and define the sizes $s(RP(\Delta^{in}))$ and $s(PS(\Delta^{in}))$. And the critical inequality $s(PS(\Delta^{in})) \geq m \cdot r_m$ (section 8.2.1) remains true.⁷

It is equally easy to extend the proof of statements ii) and iii), so we conclude that our Theorem is preserved when public indifferences are possible. We make no such statement for the case of private indifferences, where the definition of RP is relatively easy but that of PS requires more work (see [20], [6]). It is unclear whether the guaranteed m-size ratio of PS and/or of RP decreases strictly in that case.

7 Concluding comments

1. There are inefficient Envy-Free mechanisms with a worse performance than PS, that are still better than throwing away all objects all the time. For instance we can draw objects uniformly and offer them sequentially, uniformly among all the still unmatched agents, throwing the winner and the object away if she does not accept it. This is clearly an envy-free mechanism because once an object is drawn, it is lost to agents other than the winner, therefore the distribution of objects a given agent will be offered is independent of the choices of other agents, and it is in fact the same for every agent. The size ratio of this mechanism is below $\frac{1}{2}$ at Δ_m^* , for instance it is $\frac{3}{8}$ for m=2. The mechanism is also not even Ex Post Efficient.

We ask if the following refinement of statement ii) is true: the m-size ratio of any Ordinally Efficient and Envy-Free mechanism is r_m . The intuition comes from the following result about the class \mathcal{D}^m of problems such that $A = \{a_1, \dots, a_m\}$ and all individual preferences take the form $R^k = (a_m, a_{m-1}, \dots, a_k)$ for some k. Thus \mathcal{D}^m contains Δ_m^* , as well as problems with different numbers of preferences R^k for each k. Theorem 1 in [9] states that if F is Ordinally Efficient and Envy-Free, it coincides with PS on \mathcal{D}^m . The question is whether or not the problems Δ_m^* capture the worst case configuration for F.

- 2. Other worst case indices to measure the welfare performance of RP, PS, and other random assignment mechanisms, are proposed in [3]. Their linear welfare factor uses Borda scores as a proxy for cardinal utilities; the performance of PS is nearly $\frac{2}{3}$, and is superior to that of RP. More work is needed to understand the connection of those results to ours.
- 3. Many concrete instances of assignments to jobs, schools, etc.., forces participants to report only a fixed number q_0 of acceptable objects, while other objects are deemed unacceptable by the mechanism. It is therefore natural to look for the guaranteed sizes of RP and PS in this context.

⁷ An alternative definition of $PS(\Delta^{in})$ (though not of $RP(\Delta^{in})$) uses the augmented model of step 1 in section 8.2.1, where types become the objects, and their capacity is the number of copies.

8 Appendix: proofs

8.1 Lemma 1

Step $1 ext{ } extstyle{k}{m} S(m,k) \leq extstyle{1}{e} extstyle{ for all } k,1 \leq k \leq m-1.$ The Euler constant is the positive number C such that $\lim_m \varepsilon_m = 0$ where $\varepsilon_m \overset{def}{=} \ln(m) + C - (\sum_{j=1}^m frac{1}{j})$. It is easy to check that ε_m increases to zero, as $\varepsilon_{m+1} > \varepsilon_m \Leftrightarrow \ln(1+\frac{1}{n}) > \frac{1}{n+1}$, which follows from $\ln(1+x) > \frac{x}{x+1}$ for x > 0. This implies

$$S(m,k) = \ln(m) - \varepsilon_m - (\ln(k) - \varepsilon_k) \le \ln(\frac{m}{k})$$
(4)

Now for $x \in]0,1]$ we have $|x \ln(x)| \leq \frac{1}{e}$, hence $\frac{k}{m}S(m,k) \leq \frac{k}{m}\ln(\frac{m}{k}) \leq \frac{1}{e}$ as desired.

Step 2 $\frac{k_m}{m}S(m,k_m)$ increases strictly in m. Compare k_m and k_{m+1} . We have $S(m+1,k_m-1)>S(m,k_m-1)>1$ hence $k_{m+1}\geq k_m$. Moreover $S(m+1,k_m+1)\leq S(m,k_m)\leq 1$ implies $k_{m+1}\leq k_m+1$. We distinguish two cases. If $k_{m+1}=k_m=k$ we want to prove $\frac{1}{m+1}S(m+1,k)>\frac{1}{m}S(m,k)$ which easily reduces to S(m+1,k)<1, and the latter is true by definition of k_{m+1} , and the fact that S(m,k)=1 holds only for m=1,k=0. If $k_{m+1}=k_m+1$, and we write simply $k_m=k$, a straighforward computation gives

$$\frac{k+1}{m+1}S(m+1,k+1) > \frac{k}{m}S(m,k)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \frac{m-k}{m(m+1)}S(m,k+1) > \frac{k}{m(k+1)} - \frac{k+1}{(m+1)^2}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow S(m+1,k) > 1$$

and the latter inequality follows from the assumption $k_{m+1} > k$.

Step 3 $\lim_m \frac{k_m}{m} S(m, k_m) = \frac{1}{e}$. Set $\alpha_m = \frac{k_m}{m} S(m, k_m)$. By definition of k_m we have $1 - \frac{1}{k_m} \le S(m, k_m) \le 1$, implying $\frac{k_m}{m} - \frac{1}{m} \le \alpha_m \le \frac{k_m}{m}$. We know from Steps 1,2 that α_m converges to some $\alpha \le \frac{1}{e}$, so that $\lim_m \frac{k_m}{m} = \alpha$ as well. In particular $\lim_m k_m = \infty$, therefore $\lim_m S(m, k_m) = 1$. From the equality in (4) we deduce $\lim_m \ln(\frac{m}{k_m}) = 1$, and the conclusion $\alpha = \frac{1}{e}$ follows.

8.2 Theorem

8.2.1 Statement i)

It remains to prove $\sigma_m(PS) \geq mr_m$, i.e., $s(PS(\Delta)) \geq mr_m$ for any $\Delta \in \mathcal{A}^m$.

Step 1 an auxiliary result

In this step we consider the variant of the model where in addition to N,A,R, a problem specifies a common positive capacity γ for each agent, and a profile of non negative capacities $\delta = (\delta_a)_{a \in A}$ for the objects. An augmented assignment problem is now $\widetilde{\Delta} = (N,A,R,\gamma,\delta)$, and an assignment is a $N \times A$ non negative matrix $P = [p_{ia}] \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times A}_+$ such that $\sum_N p_{ia} \leq \delta_a$ for all a and $\sum_A p_{ia} \leq \gamma$ for all

i. We drop the probabilistic interpretation of P, where p_{ia} was the probability that agent i is assigned to object a, and think instead of the deterministic assignment of q divisible commodities, such that the initial endowment of good a is δ_a and agent i cannot consume more than γ units in total. The size of P is $s(P) = \sum_{N \times A} p_{ia}$ as before, and represents now the total capacity assigned at P. Note that $s(P) \leq \min\{n\gamma, \sum_A \delta_a\}$.

Although the RP mechanism is no longer defined, the eating algorithm runs for γ units of time and works as before, thus defining a feasible assignment $PS(\widetilde{\Delta})$.

Lemma 2 Fix $\varepsilon > 0$ and two augmented problems $\widetilde{\Delta} = (N, A, R, \gamma, \delta)$, $\widetilde{\Delta}' = (N, A, R, \gamma, \delta')$, such that $\delta \leq \delta'$. Then

$$s(PS(\widetilde{\Delta})) \leq s(PS(\widetilde{\Delta}')) \leq s(PS(\widetilde{\Delta})) + \sum_{\mathtt{A}} (\delta_a' - \delta_a)$$

Proof By induction on the number of objects. The statement is obvious if q = 1. Fix now q and assume the property holds until q - 1. Choose $\widetilde{\Delta}$, $\widetilde{\Delta}'$, two augmented problems with q objects, that only differ in that $\delta'_a = \delta_a + \varepsilon$ for a single object a and $\varepsilon > 0$. We must prove $s(P) \leq s(P') \leq s(P) + \varepsilon$, where P, P' are the corresponding assignments under PS. We write D, D' for the two corresponding eating algorithms, and $\delta_b(z)$, $\delta'_b(z)$ for the remaining capacity of object b at time c in c0.

If in D object a is fully consumed at time γ , then D'=D and we are done. Now we assume that a "dies" at some time $t, t < \gamma$. If any other object dies at t in D, then D and D' coincide up to t, and the restriction of $D_{[t,\gamma]}, D'_{[t,\gamma]}$ to $[t,\gamma]$ is simply PS applied to two augmented problems with at most q-1 objects, capacities $(\gamma-t)$ for agents, $\delta(t)$ and $\delta'(t)$ for objects, that only differ in that $\delta'_a(t) = \varepsilon$ while $\delta_a(t) = 0$, so we can apply the inductive assumption. Thus we assume now that only object a dies at t, and we define t' to be the first time after t where an object dies in D', or $t' = \gamma$ if there is no such object. Note that in D', a is not dead at t, and no agent can die or switch objects during the interval [t,t'], because this only happens when some object dies.

We check that $\delta_b(t') \leq \delta_b'(t')$ for all $b \in A$. This is clear for a because $\delta_a(t) = 0$, and also for any b that nobody is eating at t in D (and D'): in D' nobody switches object in [t,t'], thus nobody eats b in that interval. Consider finally $b, b \neq a$, that the agents in the subset N_b are eating at t in D (and D'): in D' the agents in N_b and only them continue to do so in [t,t']; in D the agents in N_b may be joined by new agents switching to b, and if b does not die before t' nobody switches in N_b , thus $\delta_b(t') \leq \delta_b'(t')$ as desired; this is also true if b dies in [t,t'].

We compare now $D_{[t',\gamma]}$ and $D'_{[t',\gamma]}$: they are PS applied to two augmented problems with at most q-1 objects (for b dying at t' in D', we just showed $\delta_b(t')=0$ as well), so by the inductive assumption

$$s(D_{[t',\gamma]}) \le s(D'_{[t',\gamma]}) \le s(D_{[t',\gamma]}) + \sum_{b \in A} (\delta'_b(t') - \delta_b(t'))$$
 (5)

$$= s(D_{[t',\gamma]}) + \delta'_a(t') + \sum_{b \in A \setminus \{a\}} (\delta'_b(t') - \delta_b(t'))$$

We also have two accounting identities

$$s(D_{[t,t']}) = \sum_{b \in A} (\delta_b(t) - \delta_b(t')) = \sum_{b \in A \setminus \{a\}} (\delta_b(t) - \delta_b(t'))$$
$$s(D'_{[t,t']}) = \sum_{b \in A} (\delta'_b(t) - \delta'_b(t'))$$
$$= \varepsilon - \delta'_a(t') + \sum_{b \in A \setminus \{a\}} (\delta'_b(t) - \delta'_b(t'))$$

and the equalities $D_{[0,t]}=D'_{[0,t]}$, $\delta_b(t)=\delta'_b(t)$ for all $b\neq a$. Combining those and the two previous equalities gives

$$s(D_{[0,t']}') - s(D_{[0,t']}) = \varepsilon - \delta_a'(t') + \sum_{b \in A \smallsetminus \{a\}} (\delta_b(t') - \delta_b'(t'))$$

Plugging this in the right hand inequality in (5) gives $s(D') \leq s(D) + \varepsilon$. For inequality $s(D) \leq s(D')$, recall that in D', no agent still alive at t dies in [t,t'], and the agents still alive at t in D are a subset of those, therefore $s(D_{[t,t']}) \leq s(D'_{[t,t']})$ completing the proof.

A useful consequence of Lemma 2 is the following monotonicity result:

Lemma 3 Consider two (non augmented) problems $\Delta = (N, A, R), \Delta' = (N, A, R')$ where for all $i \in N$, R'_i is a truncation of R_i : for all i we have $\{R'_i = R_i\}$ or $\{R_i = (a_1, \dots, a_k), k \geq 2, \text{ and } R'_i = (a_1, \dots, a_{k'}) \text{ with } k' < k\}$ or $\{R_i = (a_1) \text{ and } R'_i = \varnothing\}$. Then $s(PS(\Delta')) \leq s(PS(\Delta))$.

Proof We use the the notation of the previous proof. It is enough to assume that a single agent i truncates her preferences from $R_i = (a_1, \dots, a_k), \ k \geq 2$, to $R'_i = (a_1, \dots, a_{k-1})$, or from $R_i = (a_1)$ to $R'_i = \emptyset$. If in the PS algorithm D at R agent i eats no a_k , then the PS algorithm D' at R' is identical. If i eats α_k units of object a_k starting at time t, then it is the last object she eats. Therefore the restriction \widetilde{D} of D to $N \setminus \{i\}$ and to interval [t, 1] is PS applied to the augmented problem $\widetilde{\Delta}$ with capacities $\gamma = 1 - t$ for agents, $\delta_b(t)$ for each $b \neq a_k$, and $\delta_{a_k}(t) - \alpha_k$ for object a_k . On the other hand agent i dies in D' at time i, and the restriction \widetilde{D}' of D' to [t, 1] is PS applied to the augmented problem $\widetilde{\Delta}'$ on $N \setminus \{i\}$ with capacities $\gamma = 1 - t$, and $\delta_b(t)$ for all b. Therefore Lemma 2 implies

$$s(D'_{[t,1]}) = s(\widetilde{D}'_{[t,1]}) \le s(\widetilde{D}_{[t,1]}) + \alpha_k = s(D_{[t,1]})$$

and the conclusion follows from combining this inequality with $D'_{[0,t]} = D_{[0,t]}$.

Step 2 proof of statement i)

We fix now an arbitrary (non augmented) problem $\Delta_0 = (N, A, R)$ of size m, and we must prove $s(PS(\Delta_0)) \geq mr_m$. We construct first another problem

 Δ resembling the canonical diagonal problem Δ_m^* , and such that $s(PS(\Delta)) \leq$ $s(PS(\Delta_0))$. Pick an efficient deterministic assignment $P \in \mathcal{P}^d(E(\Delta_0))$ where m agents are matched to m objects. It is well known, and easy to check, that we can order these agents $\{1, \dots, m\}$ and these objects $\{a_m, \dots, a_1\}$ in such a way that P assigns object a_i to agent i, so $a_i \in R_i$, and a_i is the best object for agent i among $\{a_i, \dots, a_1\}$ (some of which may not be acceptable to i). By Lemma 3 if we fix $R_i = \emptyset$ for all agents unmatched at P, and for each $i \in \{1, \dots, m\}$ we truncate R_i at a_i , thus making all objects $\{a_{i-1}, \dots, a_1\}$ unacceptable, then the expected size of the resulting problem Δ is weakly smaller than at Δ_0 .

We now show $s(PS(\Delta)) \geq mr_m$. Let $\{i_1, i_2, \cdots, i_H\}$ the set of agents in $\{1, \dots, m\}$ who do not get a full allocation in $PS(\Delta)$ $(\sum_A p_{ia} < 1)$, ordered according to the time $t_1 \leq t_2 \leq \cdots \leq t_H$ at which they die in the PS algorithm. Set $\tau_h = t_h - t_{h-1}$, with the convention $t_0 = 0$. Then agent i_h eats $\sum_{l=1}^h \tau_l$, therefore

$$s(PS(\Delta)) = m - H + \sum_{h=1}^{H} (H + 1 - h)\tau_h$$

We set k = m - H and list H inequalities that the non negative numbers τ_h must satisfy:

 $(k+H)\tau_1 \geq 1$, because at least object a_{i_1} is dead at t_1 ;

 $(k+H)\tau_1+(k+H-1)\tau_2\geq 2$, because at least objects a_{i_1},a_{i_2} are dead at t_2 , and in $[t_1, t_2]$ one agent is absent;

and for all $h, 1 \le h \le H$:

$$\sum_{l=1}^{h} (k+H+1-l)\tau_l \ge h \tag{6}$$

because objects a_{i_1}, \dots, a_{i_h} are dead at t_h , and l-1 agents are dead in $[t_{l-1}, t_l]$. Define $\Theta = \{ \tau = (\tau_h) \in \mathbb{R}_+^H | \tau \text{ meets (6) for all } h, 1 \leq h \leq H \}$. Then $s(PS(\Delta)) \geq k + \min_{\tau \in \Theta} \sum_{h=1}^{H} (H+1-h)\tau_h$. We claim that the value of the latter program is $\sum_{h=H}^{1} \frac{h}{k+h}$. To check this, we change variables to $\lambda_h = (k+H+1-h)\tau_h$, so the program becomes

$$\min \sum_{h=1}^{H} \frac{(H+1-h)}{k+H+1-h} \lambda_h$$

such that
$$\lambda \geq 0$$
 and $\sum_{l=1}^{h} \lambda_l \geq h$ for all $h, 1 \leq h \leq H$

Its optimal solution is $\lambda_h = 1$ for all h. Indeed if $\lambda_1 > 1$, a transfer from λ_1 to

 λ_2 lowers the objective, so λ_1 must be 1; and so on. We just proved $s(PS(\Delta)) \ge k + \sum_{h=H}^1 \frac{h}{k+h}$, and this sum is $k + \sum_{h=H}^1 (1 - k)$ $\frac{k}{k+h}$) = m-kS(m,k). Finally we check that the sequence $k\to kS(m,k)$ is single-peaked with its peak at k_m , implying $s(PS(\Delta)) \geq m - k_m S(m, k_m) =$ mr_m . This is because the inequality $kS(m,k) \geq (k+1)S(m,k+1)$ (resp. <) is rearranged as $S(m,k) \leq 1$ (resp. S(m,k) > 1).

8.2.2 Statement ii)

Consider the canonical diagonal profile Δ_m^* and an Envy-Free assignment $P \in \mathcal{P}(E(\Delta_m^*))$. We check $s(P) \leq mr_m$.

Because a_m is the top object for everyone, EF implies $p_{ia_m} = p_{ja_m} = x_m$ for all i, j. Because a_{m-1} is the second best object for agents $1, \dots, m-1$, and they all eat the same amount of a_m , EF implies $p_{ia_{m-1}} = p_{ja_{m-1}} = x_{m-1}$ for all $i, j \leq m-1$. Repeating the argument we see that for all $k, p_{ia_k} = x_k$ is independent of $i \leq k$. Feasibility w.r.t objects gives $kx_k \leq 1$, and w.r.t. agent 1 it gives $\sum_{k=1}^m x_k \leq 1$. Moreover $s(P) = \sum_{k=1}^m kx_k$. Now we claim

$$mr_m = \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}_+^m} \{ \sum_{k=1}^m kx_k | \sum_{k=1}^m x_k \le 1 ; kx_k \le 1 \text{ all } k \}$$

If x is optimal, $x_k > 0$ and $x_{k+1} < \frac{1}{k+1}$ cannot both be true, otherwise a transfer from x_k to x_{k+1} improves the objective. Hence there is at most one k^* such that $0 < x_{k^*} < \frac{1}{k^*}$, and then $x_k = 0$ for $k < k^*$, and $x_k = \frac{1}{k}$ for $k > k^*$. Call this case 1. Case 2 is when no such k^* exists, then $x_k = 0$ up to some k, after which $x_k = \frac{1}{k}$.

In Case 1 we have $\sum_{k=1}^{m} x_k = S(m, k^*) + x_{k^*} \le 1$, in particular $S(m, k^*) \le 1$. Moreover this constraint must be tight, else we can improve the objective by raising x_{k^*} . Therefore $1 - S(m, k^*) = x_{k^*} < \frac{1}{k^*} \Leftrightarrow S(m, k^* - 1) > 1 \Rightarrow k^* = k_m$. Now $\sum_{k=1}^{m} k x_k = m - k^* + k^* x_{k^*} = m - k_m S(m, k_m)$ as desired.

In Case 2 we have $\sum_{k=1}^{m} x_k = S(m, \widetilde{k}) \le 1$, implying $\widetilde{k} \ge k_m$. Moreover $\sum_{k=1}^{m} kx_k = m - \widetilde{k} \Rightarrow \sum_{k=1}^{m} kx_k \le m - k_m \le m - k_m S(m, k_m)$.

8.2.3 Statement iii)

Theorem 1 in [13] states that $s(RP(\Delta)) \leq s(PS(\Delta))$ for all m and all $\Delta \in \mathcal{D}^m$ (defined in Remark 1 after the Theorem). In particular $s(RP(\Delta_m^*)) \leq s(PS(\Delta_m^*))$, and this inequality is strict as soon as $m \geq 4$. Combined with statement i), this implies $\sigma_m(RP) < r_m$ for $m \geq 4$. The statements about $\sigma_2(RP)$ and $\sigma_3(RP)$ are Theorem 6.2 in [22].

Note that [13] also shows $\lim_{m\to\infty} s(RP(\Delta_m^*)) = 1 - \frac{1}{e}$, a much weaker statement than $\lim_{m\to\infty} \sigma_m(RP) = 1 - \frac{1}{e}$, discussed in point 2 of Section 2.

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